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ARCTIC ACOUSTIC PROPAGATION MODEL WITH ICE SCATTERING

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

OBJECTIVE

The objectives of this work were to (1) improve the prediction of underwater sound propagation in the Arctic Ocean by determining ice reflection and scattering losses, and (2) develop a computer model of Arctic sound propagation.

RESULTS

- 1. A propagation loss model has been developed for the Arctic Ocean that should be of significant value in predicting Arctic propagation performance.
- 2. Ice scattering losses have been determined empirically and have given good fits to three major Arctic propagation loss data sets.
- 3. Specifications were developed for gathering data that would distinguish between different theoretical scattering functions.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- 1. Introduce relative phase into scattered sound fields so that accurately modeled array performance predictions can be made.
- 2. Gather under-ice propagation data that will facilitate scattering determination. This requires closely spaced ranges in the first 60 km with sources or receivers spaced from above 50 m to below 400 m in depth and frequencies up to 500 Hz.
- 3. Use propagation loss data as they become available to update ice scattering curves used in this Arctic propagation model. Seasonal or ice condition dependence is needed.
- 4. Set limits on the ice scattering kernel by comparing computed losses with data.

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INTRODUCTION

the Arctic Ocean, if one wishes to compute underwater propagation losses or to create a propagation loss model, the paramount problem is determining the effect of the overhead ice on the sound. aspects of sound propagation are generally easier to compute in the Arctic than in other ocean basins due to the stability of the sound speed profile and the dominance of the upward refracted, surface reflected propagation path. The acoustic effects of the ice are extremely complicated. The rough and irregular shape of the ice, its elastic properties, inhomogeneities, and even its snow cover, all affect the sound. These acoustic effects, including the parameters of the ice itself, are being ably and energetically investigated. However, while these studies are in progress, a best-available acoustic description of the ice is needed. This description can be in the form of reflection and scattering losses and scattering directions as functions of the appropriate variables. A knowledge of which variables are important is also needed.

The primary purpose of the effort reported here was to develop an acoustic description of the ice as outlined above. Our strategy was to model the non-ice dependent aspects of sound propagation as well as possible. We then sought ice reflection values that gave the best fit between computed and observed propagation loss. The results provide good general levels of ice reflection loss as functions of grazing angle, frequency, and ice roughness. Other, less definitive results that may require more data to determine or substantiate involve the functional dependence or shape of the reflection loss for the above parameters, the directional characteristics of the non-specular scatter, seasonal dependence, and ice loss as opposed to ice scatter.

A second product of this effort is an Arctic propagation loss model. This model with our ice scattering losses incorporated into it agrees well with all three major sets of data used. Samples from each set are given in this report. We chose a normal mode model that was reliable and easy to use, though necessarily range independent. That is, we must assume the environment is constant in range. The result is an Arctic model that a user can apply with ease and confidence. It can be used in both deep and shallow water, with or without ice cover. The model is discussed in the first section of this report and the input-output for two runs are given in appendix A as an aid to users in constructing runs.

Because we were interested in ice scattering effects, we chose a model with both primary and secondary scattering. Primary scattering is the loss of energy at the surface due to scattering. Secondary scattering is the propagation of this scattered energy to the source and receiver. A simple Arctic model with empirical ice loss could be constructed without using secondary scattering. However, one cannot hope to approach the true physics of the problem without accounting for the scattered energy. The use of secondary scattering in the model increases the acoustic parameters that need to be known, particularly the scattering directions or scattering kernel. It also greatly increases the information that the model can produce. The relative strength of the direct and scattered fields is an example. This is treated briefly in the final section of this report.

The scope of this study was limited by the propagation loss data that were available. For example, air-dropped explosive sources are by far the easiest sources to use in the Arctic. The data therefore tend to be sparse because the data can be gathered only from patches of open water. Also, the air drops cover long ranges; therefore the higher frequencies are greatly attenuated and tend to be neglected. We have therefore been most successful in estimating those ice acoustic effects that control the overall range dependent attenuation at frequencies of 200 Hz and below. Closely spaced and more detailed propagation loss data, when available, will permit better determination of other aspects of ice acoustics.

DESCRIPTION OF THE ARCTIC PROPAGATION MODEL

The Arctic sound field is presented as having two interacting components. There is a coherent sound field that is represented by a finite set of normal modes and a stochastic component associated with the scattered field. The normal modes are an exact solution of the wave equation when the water-ice boundary does not scatter (i.e., at very low frequencies). The number of normal modes required is a linear function of frequency with as few as 110 normal modes needed at a frequency of 100 Hz for a typical Arctic profile for long ranges.

The stochastic component of the sound field is represented by a set of integrals that are the result of sound waves interacting with the rough waterice boundary. The scattering integrals are associated with ray paths that direct sound energy from the source to the water-ice boundary or from the boundary to a receiver (hydrophone).

A single normal mode is made of up- and down-going waves that satisfy a condition of constructive interference called the dispersion equation (ref. 1). In figure 1, the solid lines represent sound energy traveling as a single normal mode. The dashed lines represent ray paths associated with the stochastic sound field. At the source, the rays represent sound energy that travels from the source to the water-ice boundary, where scattering excites the normal mode (ray to mode exchange of energy). Near the receiver, sound energy in the normal mode is scattered at the water-ice boundary into rays that travel from the boundary to the receiver (mode to ray exchange of energy).

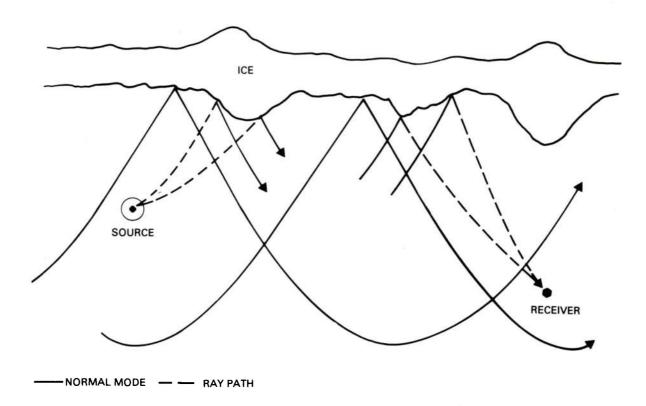


Figure 1. Mode-to-ray and ray-to-mode conversion.

In the Arctic model, the coherent field is represented as a finite set of normal modes. If $P_{\rm C}$ is the coherent field at horizontal range r and receiver depth z, then from reference 1

$$P_{c} = \sum_{m=1}^{M} (2\pi/r)^{1/2} U_{m}(z_{0}) U_{m}(z) \exp(ik_{m}r) / \left(k_{m}^{1/2} N_{m}\right)$$
 (1)

In equation 1, r is the horizontal range, z_0 and z are the source depth and receiver depth, U_{m} is the depth function which is a solution of the Helmholtz equation that also satisfies the dispersion equation, $k_{_{\boldsymbol{m}}}$ is the horizontal wave number of mode m, and $N_{\rm m}$ is a generalized normalization factor. Arctic model, each U (depth function) can have up to 21 depth segments, or layers. Each segment of U consists of a sum of two exponential functions with + and - arguments when the sound speed is constant, or of a sum of the Airy functions, Ai and Bi, when the sound speed changes with depth (linear in the squared index of refraction). Coefficients of the exponential functions, or of Ai and Bi, are chosen so the sound pressure and the particle velocity of the sound field are continuous functions throughout the acoustic channel. The model automatically adjusts the horizontal wave number k until a value $\boldsymbol{k}_{_{\boldsymbol{m}}}$ is found for which $\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{m}}$ satisfies the boundary conditions at the water-ice interface and at the bottom of the sound channel. The bottom condition is either the Summerfeld radiation condition, if the mode does not interact with the bottom sediments, or a bottom impedance condition if it does. This value of k (k_m) is said to satisfy the dispersion equation, and the corresponding value of U is denoted U_.

To insure efficient computation and to eliminate the problem of not finding a normal mode, it is first assumed the k_m is real and a real k_m is found that satisfies the boundary conditions in terms of phase shifts. The imaginary part of k_m is then set by the equation (ref. 2)

$$Im(k_m) = (SL_m + BL_m) / (8.686X_m)$$
 (2)

where SL_m and BL_m are the boundary losses (in dB per reflection) at the surface and bottom of the channel, and X_m is the cycle distance (horizontal distance between surface reflections of the ray that is associated (i.e., same phase speed) as mode m.

The scattered field is written in terms of scattering integrals of the form:

$$J_{m} = \int_{\gamma_{s1}}^{\gamma_{s2}} \left[\sigma \exp(2I_{m}(k_{m})\rho) / \sin\gamma_{r} \right] d\gamma_{s}$$
 (3)

The reader should refer to reference 1 for derivation of equation 3 and for the equations that relate equation 3 to the stochastic sound field. Here, we shall show the physical interpretation of equation 3 and indicate how the integral is calculated. In equation 3, γ_s is the grazing angle of ray sound energy at the water-ice boundary, γ_{s1} and γ_{s2} are the limiting values of rays that can travel from the interface to the receiver, σ is the scattering coefficient, γ_r is the angle of the ray at the receiver, and ρ is the horizontal distance from the point where the ray is scattered at the surface to the receiver. There is also a related integral where the source replaces the receiver.

Several rays with the same γ_s contribute to the integral as shown in fig-Point 1 in figure 2 represents sound energy scattered at the surface (at pt. 1) and traveling directly down to the receiver. Point 2 represents sound energy scattered (at pt. 2) which is refracted back to the surface by the strong positive gradient of the sound speed in the Arctic, at point 1. This ray energy has a specular reflection at point 1; then travels directly to the receiver. Compared to the strength of the energy scattered at point 1, the energy scattered from point 2 is stronger by the factor $\exp \left[2Im(k_m(\rho_2 - 1)^2)\right]$ $\rho_1))]$, because mode m is that much stronger at point 2 than at point 1. the other hand, the contribution from point 2 is weaker because of the specular reflection loss due to the surface reflection at point 1 and any bottom interaction loss that may occur along the path from point 2 to point 1. There are also ray paths from points 3, 4, etc., that must be included. to figure 2, it is seen that there is also a set of paths with the same $\gamma_{\rm c}$ that arrive at the receiver from below, namely from points 1, 2, etc. paths must be included in the integral (eq. 3) with appropriate values of ρ and corrected for specular reflection losses and bottom interaction losses, if any.

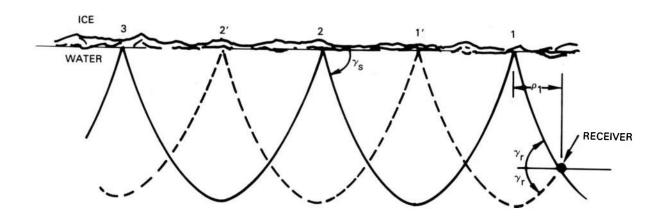


Figure 2. Ray paths from mode m to the receiver.

The scattering coefficient σ depends on the angle of the mode (or the ray of the same wave number) at the surface, the scattering angle γ_s , and the surface scattering loss. This is generally termed the scattering kernel. At present, the program uses σ proportional to $\sin \gamma_s$, or Lambert scattering. The mode angle enters only in determining the total energy scattered per reflection. Only scattering in the forward direction is used. In future work we plan to determine the sensitivity of the computer propagation loss to these assumptions regarding the scattering kernel.

In summary for this section, the sound field is represented as two overlapping fields. Thus, at any point in the channel, there will be a coherent field represented by a finite set of normal modes and a stochastic field consisting of a set of scattering integrals that are associated with ray paths from the source to the water-ice interface or from the interface to the receiver. If the water-ice boundary is smooth, (i.e., r.m.s. variations of the water-ice interface $<<\lambda$, where λ is the acoustic wavelength), then σ in equation 3 will approach zero and only the coherent field will be observable. As the frequency of the sound increases, there will be more scattering and a larger stochastic contribution to that total field. On the basis of our limited experience, the Arctic model indicates an increasing stochastic field with frequency until saturation occurs, when the energy is about evenly divided between the stochastic and coherent sound fields.

ICE REFLECTION LOSS DETERMINATION

The purpose of the work reported in this section was to determine ice reflection losses due both to scattering and attenuation. The scattering is due to irregularities at the ice-water interface. The attenuation is energy that is lost at reflection and does not re-enter the water. Much of it may be by absorption of various waves in the ice. Our strategy was to use the propagation loss program described above to account for as many propagation parameters as possible. The principal unknowns are then the reflection losses. By comparing computed losses with observed losses, the reflection losses can be adjusted to give the best comparison. In this section we give the reflection loss curves that resulted from our investigation, a discussion of the data used, and finally, a discussion of the limitations that appear to be inherent in this method of determining coefficients.

REFLECTION LOSS CURVES

Figure 3 shows the reflection loss curves for two frequencies: 100 and 200 Hz. These curves give loss versus grazing angle for angles up to 20° . The curves over the shaded areas represent the reflection loss due to ice attenuation. The remainder of the loss represents scattering loss. This scattering loss is linear in decibel units for grazing angles up to 20° . The loss is 0 dB at 0° grazing angle. The scattering loss at any frequency is thus a curve of one parameter. A convenient way to express this parameter is the slope of the curve in dB/degree.

This slope of the scattering curve is a function of frequency. Figure 4 shows the frequency dependence of the slope. Note that the curve is flat above 200 Hz; i.e., the slope of the scattering loss is approximately 0.33 dB/degree for all frequencies above 200 Hz. This effect is apparently due to the scattering objects (the ice keels) becoming large compared to an acoustic wavelength. Diachok (ref. 3) demonstrates this effect and explains it using Twersky's loss scattering model. These scattering losses are determined for data from the central Arctic deep water areas. Corrections for other ice conditions will be discussed later.

ICE ATTENUATION LOSS

In figure 3, the difference between the losses caused by ice attenuation and those caused by scattering are represented by the shaded area. The ice-loss curve increases from 0 to 2 dB above the scattering curve over a 2° interval, and then remains at 2 dB above the scattering curve. These values are independent of frequency. Here, this additional reflection loss starts at 15° grazing angle. We use this value for winter ice. For summer ice we lower the starting angle to 13°. This is the only seasonal difference that we use in our reflection coefficients, and is a purely hypothetical difference. As will be shown later, it makes only a small difference in propagation loss, and very accurate data will be needed to test it. Differences in roughness of summer and winter ice may well overshadow the effect.

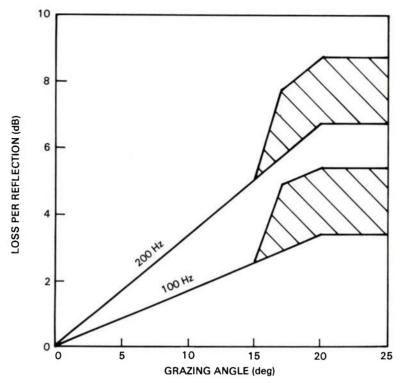


Figure 3. Ice reflection losses as a function of grazing angle at two frequencies as used in the Arctic propagation program. The losses are due to scattering except that part over the shaded area, which is due to ice loss.

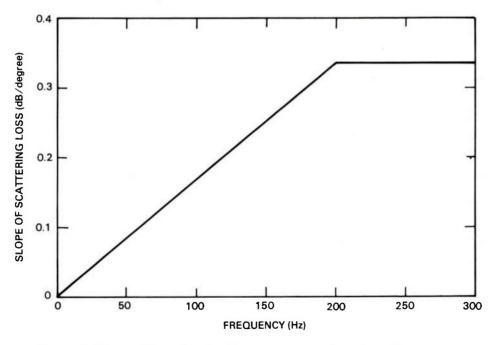


Figure 4. Slope of ice reflection loss curves as a function of frequency.

In the propagation loss model, the only difference in the use of scattering loss and ice loss is that energy lost to scattering is used in the scattering integrals and some of it reaches the receiver. The energy lost to ice attenuation is not accounted for further.

The above hypothesis regarding summer and winter ice is based on the assumption that ice loss increases abruptly when the phase speed of shear waves or surface waves (leaky Rayleigh or Sholty waves) is reached. Next, it is assumed that harder winter ice has a higher shear velocity. The only evidence on hand for these assumptions is an estimate arrived at by Mellen and Marsh (ref. 4) of a 13° ice cut-off angle. They were observing individual shot records, most probably from August-September data. Long range propagation under winter ice arrives from angles up to 17° from the horizontal. This limit could be imposed by either ocean bottom or an ice cut-off angle. In deep water, the bottom grazing rays strike the surface at about 18°. In either case, the winter cut-off angle is higher than the 13° angle of summer.

BOTTOM REFLECTIONS

Above 20° , the reflection loss curves are not important to long range propagation because rays that strike the surface at this angle also strike the bottom. These rays strike the ice at relative short range intervals and are rapidly attenuated. To use our current technique to determine reflection losses at these angles would require both carefully observed losses along bottom reflected paths and very reliable bottom loss coefficients. Neither of these requirements have been available in this study.

We have used a reasonable set of bottom reflection loss curves. Those at four frequencies are shown in figure 5. These curves were determined from normal mode theory using a fluid bottom with a sound speed gradient of 1.0, a density of 1.8 gm/cm 3 , and sound speed is continuous at the water-sediment interface. The curves are arbitrarily continued at higher angles that have little effect on long range propagation.

ICE ROUGHNESS DEPENDENCE

Finally, the reflection coefficients just given must be adjusted for ice roughness. We have followed Buck in expressing ice roughness in terms of the standard deviation of ice depth, s. Figure 6, published by Buck (ref. 5) from LeShack and Chang (ref. 6) shows contours of s on a map of the Arctic Ocean. Data from which our loss curves were calibrated came from areas of s approximately equal to 2 meters, and the previously presented loss curves are assumed to be for s = 2m. Curves for several values of s are given in figure 7. These curves are based on relatively small samples of data, as will be discussed later. A simple algebraic form that fits the scant data has been selected as follows: letting the slope of the curve at s = 2 be K(2, f) and

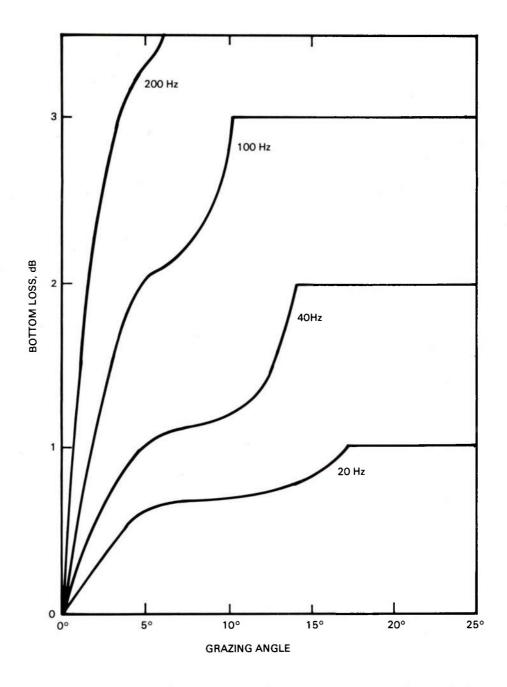
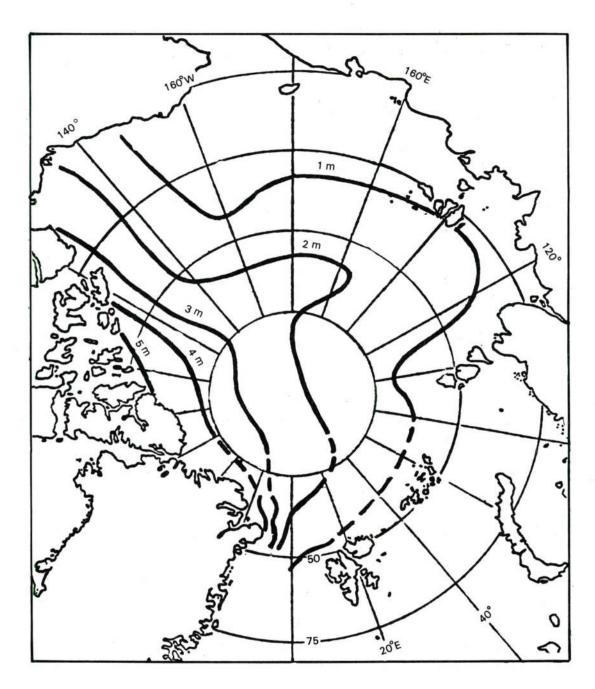


Figure 5. Bottom reflection loss as a function of bottom grazing angle for four frequencies.



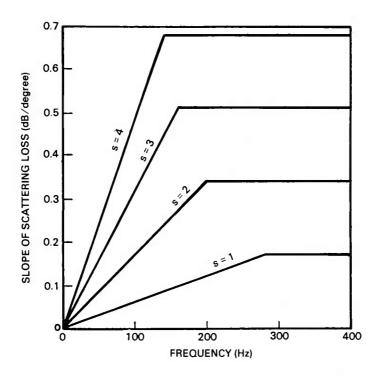


Figure 7. SLope of ice scattering loss curves as a function of frequency and of s, the standard deviation of ice roughness.

the saturation frequency at which scatters are large compared to a wave length be f_0 , our curves are expressed as:

$$K(s,f) = (s/2)^{1.5} K(2,f)$$
 $f_o \le 200(2/s)^{0.5}$

$$K(s) = (s/2)^{1.5} K(2,f_o)$$
 $f_o > 200(2/s)^{0.5}$ (4)

Inserting the value for the slope at $s=2\,\mathrm{m}$ from figure 2, the scattering loss slopes are

$$K(s,f) = 0.000597 \text{ fs}^{1.5}$$
 dB/degree/Hz f $\leq 283s^{-0.5}$ (5)
 $K(s) = 0.169s$ dB/degree f > $283s^{-0.5}$

FITTING PROPAGATION LOSS DATA

The scattering loss curves of the previous section were derived by selecting values of slope which gave best overall fits to certain published Arctic propagation loss data. The fits to these data are shown next. In determining all fits, we used the sound speed profile shown in figure 8. Except where noted, a water depth of 3500 m was used. Sample bottom reflection losses were shown in figure 5. Thorp volume attenuation was used throughout. Except where noted, the data are assumed to be April-May data, and hard winter ice is assumed. That is, the ice loss curves start at 15° grazing angle as in figure 3. Ice depth standard deviation is 2 m.

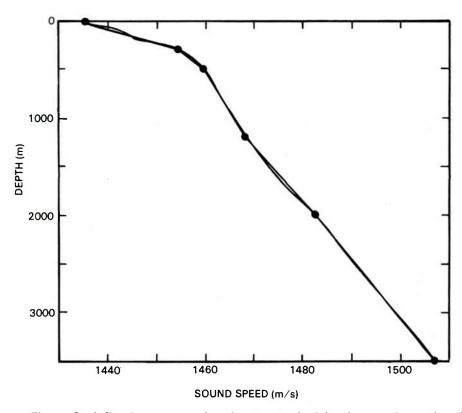


Figure 8. A five-layer approximation to a typical Arctic sound speed profile.

DIACHOK'S DATA

The most consistent data set available to us was that published by Diachok (ref. 3) for the "smooth" ice case (tracks 22 and 26). Two frequencies, 50 and 200 Hz, were used. The fits to these data are shown in figures 9 and 10. Because of the consistency of these data, we required a close fit. The fits were made by eye, by matching the propagation loss curves to the published data. The data were not available in digitized form for computer processing.

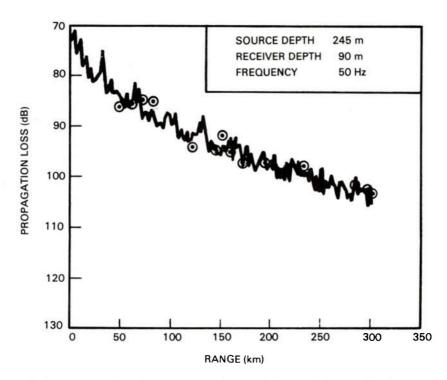


Figure 9. Comparison of Arctic shot data at 50 Hz with computed propagation losses. Data from Diachok.

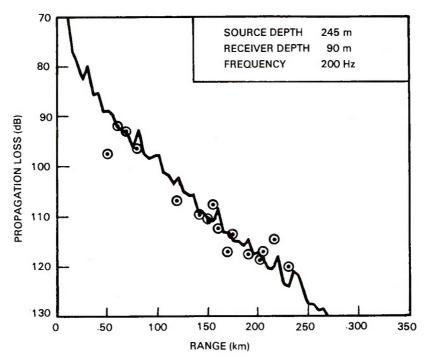


Figure 10. Comparison of Arctic shot data at 200 Hz with computed propagation losses. Data from Diachok.

BUCK'S DATA

Data published by Buck (ref. 5) were apparently derived from more diverse observations, but were for a single shot depth and a single receiver depth, as printed on the figures. Buck states that data for shallow paths have been excluded from the set. The data include frequencies from 10 to 200 Hz. Figures 11 to 13 show fits for 50, 100, and 200 Hz. The computed losses differ from those of the previous figures only in receiver depth. The circles in the figures represent shot data and the crosses are from cw data.

In these three plots, there is a tendency for the computed losses to be above the data at intermediate ranges and below the data at longer ranges. This may indicate a shortcoming in our reflection loss curve, which is linear in decibels. This will be discussed later. However, this interpretation is not compelling, and a simple scatter of the data is also a possible interpretation.

MELLEN AND MARSH DATA

The third set of data available to us was that of Mellen and Marsh (ref. 4). These data were taken predominantly in 1959 and 1962 from Fletcher's Ice Island (T3) and are of a more varied nature than the previous sets. Source depth, receiver depth, and shot yields varied. The presence of the ice island at the receiver may have introduced a consistent increase in loss into the data. This ice island might also have been the source of the 13° ice cut-off angle that we have attributed to summer ice. The greatest source of variation in the loss data is almost certainly the ocean depth. The ice island was in water of less than 1000-m depth when much of the data were gathered. Assuming that shallow water along the propagation path is more likely to increase loss than to decrease it, we have chosen to fit our loss curves to the less lossy data points.

Figures 14 to 16 show fits to the Mellen and Marsh data at frequencies of 100, 200, and 800 Hz. These data are particularly useful in giving us some higher frequency points to tie down the high frequency end of the reflection loss curves.

ICE ROUGHNESS

The ice roughness dependence of our reflection loss function was determined with considerably less precision than the frequency dependence. This is because fewer data sets were available, and also because knowledge of s (the ice depth standard deviation) to attribute to the data sets was far from certain. The following data were employed. Diachok's (ref. 3) "rough" ice cases (tracks 18 and 20) were used with $s=3.5 \, \mathrm{m}$. Buck's empirical fit gave a good functional relationship between s and propagation loss for frequencies between 10 and 100 Hz. Finally, Milne's (ref. 7) data were tried. These last data were of little real value to us because the experimental track extends from water of 500- to 1300-m depth. Our constant depth model cannot be used with confidence for such a path. Nevertheless, a computation using a depth of 700 m and $s=4.5 \, \mathrm{m}$ showed good agreement with the slope of the data at 100 Hz.

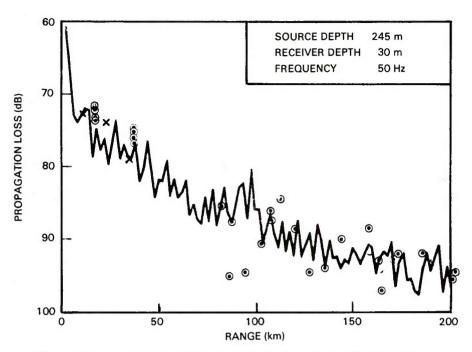


Figure 11. Comparison of Arctic shot and cw data at 50 Hz with computed propagation losses. Data from Buck.

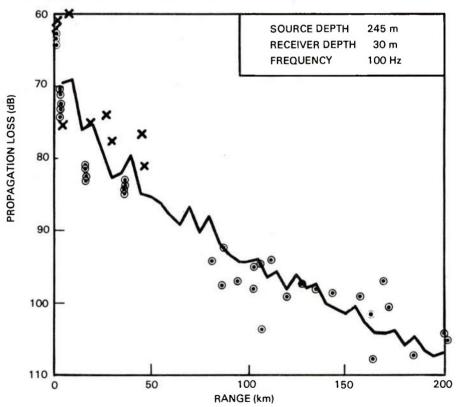


Figure 12. Comparison of Arctic shot and cw data at 100 Hz with computed propagation losses. Data from Buck.

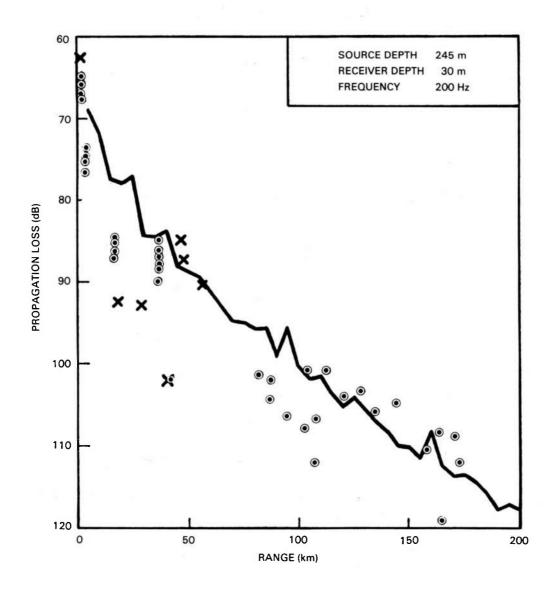


Figure 13. Comparison of Arctic shot and cw data at 200 Hz with computed propagation losses. Data from Buck.

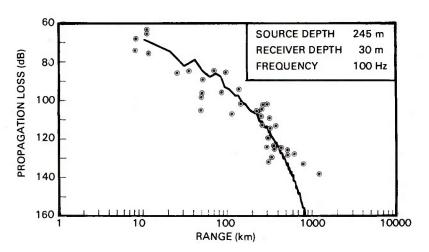


Figure 14. Comparison of Arctic shot data at 100 Hz with computed propagation losses. Data from Mellen and Marsh.

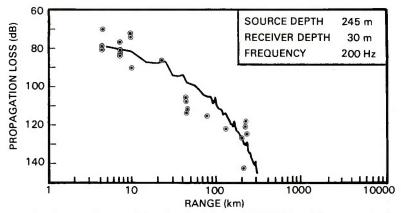


Figure 15. Comparison of Arctic shot data at 200 Hz with computed propagation losses. Data from Mellen and Marsh.

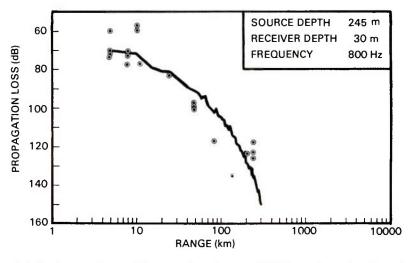


Figure 16. Comparison of Arctic shot data at 800 Hz with computed propagation losses. Data from Mellen and Marsh.

Figure 17 shows the fit using the Milne data points as plotted by Mellen and Marsh (ref. 4).

The slope of the computed and observed losses agrees well, but there is a consistent 7-dB offset beyond the first two data points.

The above data represent a small number of points upon which to base the ice-roughness dependence of our curves. This dependence should therefore be considered tentative, pending the availability of more data. Of course, our overall strategy of determining reflection loss curves is data dependent. The curves are therefore expected to change as additional data are used to verify and update them.

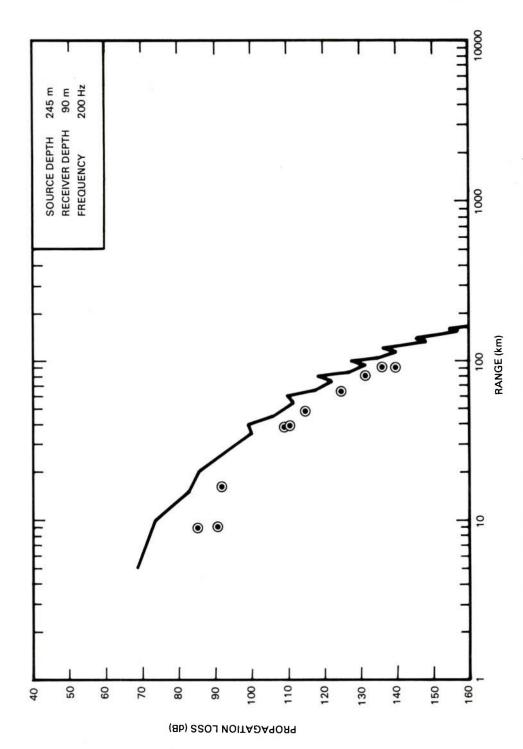


Figure 17. Comparison of Arctic shallow water shot data with computed propagation losses using s=4.5~m. Data from Milne.

COMPARISON OF REFLECTION LOSS FUNCTIONS

The simple scattering loss functions of figure 7 lead to good agreement between observed data and computed losses. They give some general information on the functional dependence of the losses. In the following, we investigate these dependences further.

PROPAGATION LOSS FOR DIFFERENT SCATTERING FUNCTIONS

We chose a linear function for loss versus grazing angle because of its simplicity. In this section we will compare this function with other possible forms. Our ultimate purpose is to determine if the form of the function makes sufficient difference in the computer losses to permit selection of the best form by comparison with data. Alternatively, we should determine how good or how much data is required to distinguish between the different reflection loss curves. To distinguish, the standard error of estimation of a least squares fit to the data should be less than the differences produced by computing losses with different forms of the reflection loss curves. Here we will show one determination of this difference. Making least squares fits to data is left to the future.

Figure 18 shows four forms for the reflection loss curve for 100 Hz. They are all made equal at 12° gazing angle. Rays near this angle have the smallest attenuation due to surface loss when the linear reflection loss curve is used. The curve titled "log linear" is our linear in decibels curve. Diachok (ref. 3) uses two forms of Twersky's reflectivity. For low frequencies, the curve is linear in intensity and the curve of this form is the "intensity linear" curve. At high frequencies, Diachok uses a rational expression which gives the "high frequency" curve. We fit this curve to our common point at 12° by choosing a value for one of the parameters, x, of 0.7. The final curve is a constant. The frequency of 100 Hz is an intermediate value to which neither Twersky's low nor high frequency limits apply.

Figure 19 shows losses computed for these four curves. The modes have been added in random phase to suppress the mode interference beats so that the four loss curves can be compared. The difference can be seen more clearly in figure 20, where the difference between losses for the log linear curve and each of the other three is plotted. Clearly, the curve of greatest difference from the log linear curve is the high frequency curve. The greatest difference between the computed losses at 40 and at 200 km for these two curves is 10 dB. Such differences could be clearly distinguished in an experiment designed to elucidate them.

The losses for the constant reflection curve are intermediate between the log linear and the high frequency losses. The intensity linear losses differ little from the log linear, and one can be used as well as the other for practical computations.

The propagation losses of figure 19 were computed for source and receiver, both at 50-m depth. When a source depth of 245 m was used, as in much of the data given here, the differences in propagation loss between the four functions were much reduced. The reason is that shallow paths that strike the surface at grazing angles below 8° do not reach the deeper sources. It is

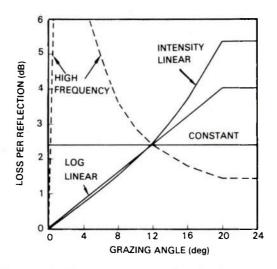


Figure 18. Four candidate reflection loss curves.

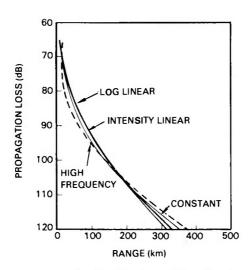


Figure 19. Losses computed for the four reflection loss curves of Figure 18 at 100 Hz.

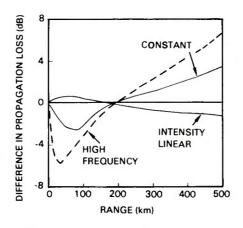


Figure 20. Differences between the loss curves of Figure 19.

these paths where the different loss functions discriminate most. When these paths are not included, the discrimination between the different functions is lost. Figure 21 shows path depth or ray vertexing depth as a function of surface grazing angle for the Arctic profile used here. For a given source or receiver depth, rays with surface grazing angles less than that shown in the figure will pass above the source or receiver. Only diffracted or scattered energy from these shallower paths will be propagated.

This need for shallow source and receiver means that the data given here, such as that of figure 12, are not effective for distinguishing between different scattering curves. It further indicates that an experiment designed to indicate something about the scattering curves should have a shallow source and receivers.

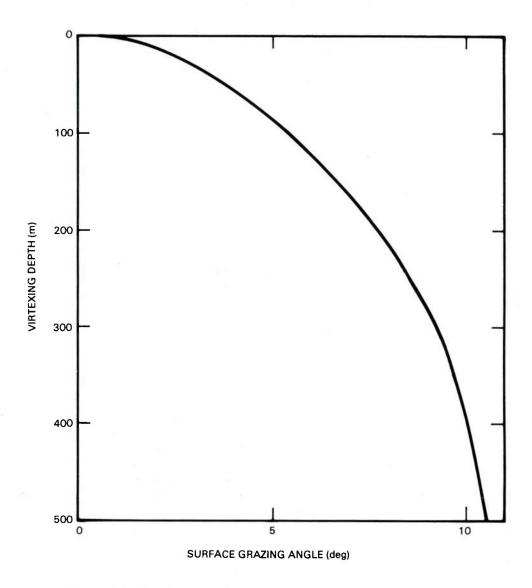


Figure 21. The depth at which rays of given surface grazing angle vertex for the Arctic profile of Figure 8. The ray is confined between this depth and the surface.

DIFFERENCE IN SUMMER AND WINTER COMPUTATIONS

As stated earlier, this computer model distinguishes between winter and summer ice by placing the leading edge of a 2-dB ice loss function either at a 13° or 15° grazing angle. The ice loss was illustrated by the shaded area in figure 3. The ice loss was implemented in hopes that ice cut-off angles could be elucidated by comparing computer runs with observed data. In the following, we compare runs that differ only in this way and show that the difference is small. It appears that reliable values of ice loss will have to be determined in other ways, and that their inclusion in the program will not greatly alter its output.

Figure 22 shows the difference in decibels between computations using three different values for the leading edge of the ice loss function. are expressed as differences in propagation loss from the 15° value that is the standard used in this report. The exception was 13° for the Mellen and At 500-km range, the use of the 13° value increases the loss by Marsh data. 2.7 dB. A similar increase in loss could be obtained by changing the s (standard deviation of ice depth) from 2 m to 2.1 m, and thus altering the scattering loss by 8 percent. This difference in s is too small to be readily measured in the Arctic, making an experimental verification unlikely. difference in the shape of the 13° curve in figure 20 from a straight line might be used. As in the previous section, one would compare computed and observed losses at 40 km with those at some long range to get the greatest sensitivity. However, only about 1 dB difference is predicted between the 13° and 15° cases when scattering losses are adjusted to give best fits. gation data are not likely to distinguish between such small differences.

The 20° line on figure 22 is almost equivalent to removing the ice loss completely. Rays of 17.6° or greater grazing angle will be bottom reflected for the 3500-m depth used in these computations. These rays contribute almost nothing at long ranges. Even at shorter ranges, their ice scattering and bottom loss, compounded by short skip distances, produce a high attenuation rate and an additional 2 dB per bounce due to ice loss which is difficult to measure.

REFLECTION LOSSES FOR MODELS WITH FIRST ORDER SCATTERING

Some users may wish to use the reflection coefficients given here in a program with only first order scattering. That is, energy is lost at the water-ice interface but is not returned to the sound field by some computation such as the scattering integrals used here. This returned energy is called secondary scattering. To obtain equivalent fits to the data, such a program should use smaller values of reflection loss. Here we show that using a scattering loss in decibels that is 0.75 percent of the losses presented in this report gives reasonable agreement. However, the two types of computations have different source-receiver depth dependence and the agreement is only approximate.

Figure 23 is a repetition of figure 12 with a second loss computation added. This added computation is the propagation loss using 0.75 percent of the scattering loss of figure 3 and using no secondary scattering. This is accomplished in the program by placing all the surface loss in the ice loss

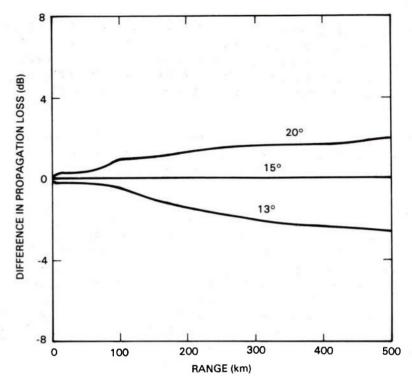


Figure 22. Difference between propagation loss computations with the ice loss curve starting at 13°, 15°, and 20° grazing angle.

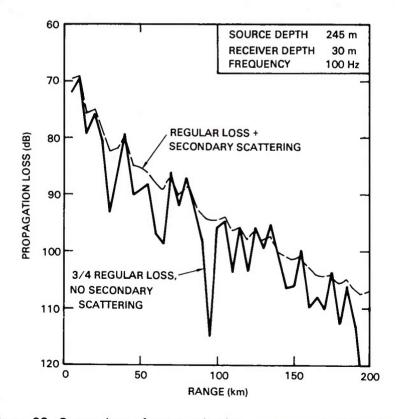


Figure 23. Comparison of propagation losses computed with and without secondary scattering.

table and none in the scattering loss table. The surface scattering integrals therefore make no contribution to the field. The most apparent difference between the two computations in figure 23 is the much greater fluctuation in the losses without secondary scattering. This is because the scattering integrals give a rather smooth loss function that fills in the interference nulls in the coherent mode results.

The source-receiver depth dependence of the computations with and without secondary scattering is complicated. We have not studied it in detail. Here we will point out one difference and show one comparison as an introduction to the topic.

In the Arctic positive gradient sound speed profile, a deep source or receiver fails to intercept some rays which pass above it. If a shallow source is producing such rays, scattering can direct some energy from them down to a deeper receiver. By reciprocity, the same thing can happen for a deep source and shallow receiver. This produces a scattered field that is relatively strong compared to the direct field. Thus, when source and receiver are at different depths, the computation with secondary scattering will show relatively less loss than that without secondary scattering. When source and receiver are near the same depth, this extra advantage is lost and losses computed without secondary scattering are relatively smaller.

The above effect is shown in figure 24. Random phase mode losses are shown for ranges of 100 and 200 km. In general, the losses with secondary scattering are greater when source and receiver are at the same depth and smaller when they are at different depths. The two computations are roughly equal, because of the reduction of the surface loss to 75 percent for the no secondary scatter case.

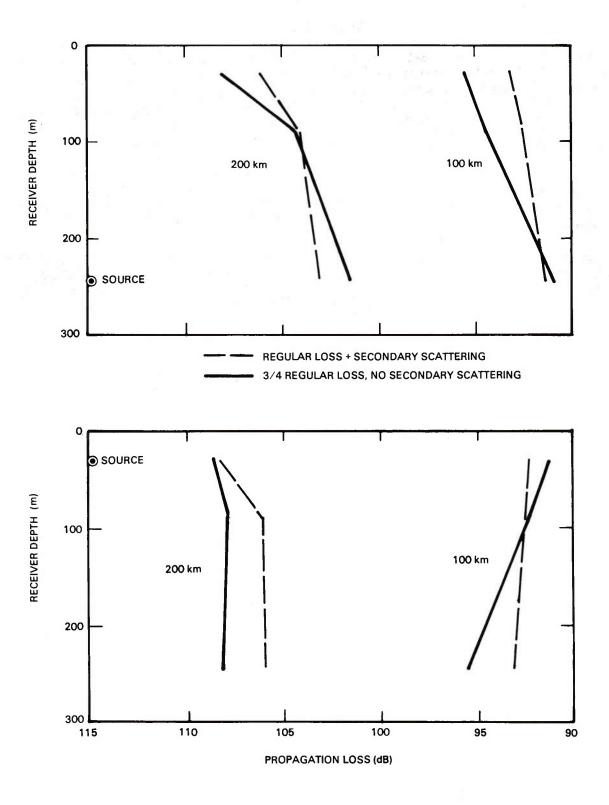


Figure 24. Propagation losses at two ranges and three receiver depths computed with and without secondary scattering.

CONCLUSION

A normal mode computer model has been adapted to Arctic underwater sound propagation. The model integrates over ray paths from the rough surface to the source and receiver to compute the scattered part of the sound field. Ice scattering losses have been determined, and with their use the model gives very good agreement with observed Arctic data. Ice attenuation loss is incorporated in the model, but the data available are not sufficient to determine the small differences in propagation loss caused by ice attenuation.

Available propagation loss data do not permit evaluation of the exact functional dependence of scattering loss upon grazing angle. However, experimental configurations are discussed that would help determine the functional dependence.

It is shown that a program which does not use secondary scattering can obtain results approximating ours if an ice scattering loss of 75 percent of our loss in decibels is used. However, the source receiver dependence of the results cannot be made to coincide exactly.

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APPENDIX A: SAMPLE RUNS

This appendix gives two sample runs to assist users of the Arctic propagation model in setting up run decks. Figure A-1 is an explanation of input card formats prepared by D. White of NORDA. Following that, two sample runs are presented, each of which consists of an input deck of ten cards and the computer printout which results.

The first of the two runs, entitled "First Sample Run" (fig A-2), is a 100-Hz run using 250 modes. Bottom loss, ice scattering, and ice loss tables are all read in. A five-layer Arctic sound speed profile and two receiver depths are read in. An additional receiver, at the same depth as the source, is always added by the program (if not read in by the user.)

The second sample run, entitled "Second Sample Run" (fig. A-2), is a 200-Hz run and only requests modes up to phase velocity 1510 m/sec. (This is not an adequate number, as one can check by making a run with a larger number of modes and noting the difference in propagation loss.) This run requests standard ice roughness losses for ice depth standard deviation of 2.5 m by placing only this number on the input card for ice scattering loss. The standard winter ice loss is obtained by using zero (a blank) on the ice loss card.

The propagation loss on the printouts is given at lines entitled RKM. The following lines, entitled 10 and 90 percent, give certain expected values resulting from the random phase relation between the coherent and incoherent fields, and are not discussed in this report. The lines entitled Coherent SL give the propagation loss of the coherent or normal mode field only. Finally, for every tenth range, a random phase loss is given, which is equivalent to the loss of a range averaged intensity.

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Figure A-1. Input card formats.

Figure A-1. (Continued)

Figure A-1. (Continued)

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Figure A-1. (Continued)

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Figure A-2. First sample run.

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Figure A-2. (Continued)

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Figure A-2. (Continued)

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S I	1 4	1442.5532	1442.5531 6.83 8.83 8.82 9.99 9.99 10.65 11.25 11.26 11.98 11.98 11.98 12.23 12.23 12.10 12.10 12.10 12.10 12.10 12.10 12.10 12.10 12.10 12.10 12.10 12.10 13.10 13.10	133.50 133.50 133.50 133.50 133.50 144.40 144.65 144.65 146.65 14
1442.5530	42.553	1442.5530	2.55530 2.19 2.19 2.19 2.19 2.19 2.19 2.19 2.19	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
1442.2704	. 270	1442.2704	1442.2704 1445.266 1448.916 1452.159 1452.023 1452.023 1453.023 1461.248 1463.098 1463.098 1463.098 1463.098 1466.216 1466.216 1466.216 1466.929 1467.621 1468.300 1468.300 1470.379 1471.074 1471.074 1471.074	74747474747474747474747474747474747474
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י פּט	DOUBLE DUCT	DOUBLE DUCT	DDU BLE DUCT	. 4 4 4 4 4 W W W W W W W W W W W W W W
¥ ;	. X	.* CK.		MODE MODE MODE MODE MODE MODE MODE MODE

.91 4059	00.	.42	.83	.22 4513	.58 46	.88	.93 48480.	7 86.	.51	.04	.19	.32 33001.	.51	.80	.24	.38	.38	.33	r.	.38	.38	.38	.38	.38 19055.	.38	.38	.38	.38	.38 16	.38 15	.38 15	.38 14	ı.	.38 12	
7	m	e	e	4	4	4	4	4	.21	.12 7	.51	. 69	.76 7	.76 7	.70	.60	.47	.32 8	.15	.96	.76 8	.55	.33 8	8	.87 8	.63	.38	.14 8	0.89	1.64 8	.38	3.87 8	5.37	.87	
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														Ø	O	0	-	-	•	3	3	E	က	24.48	S	S	9	9	7	7	8	6	0	•	
.072	.073	.081	.087	.093	660.	.103	.102	.101	.150	.182	.203	.222	.242	.266	.297	.317	.333	.348	.363	.378	.393	.409	.424	.440	.456	.471	.487	.504	.520	.537	.554	.588	.624	.661	
7.8	1488.401	1491.061	1493.640	6.1	6	0.10	1503.354	05.67	08.12	10.91	13.99	17.34	20.93	1524.778	28.85	33.17	37.7	2.52	47.5	52.8	58.	64.24	70.33	76.	83.34	90.29	1597.541	05.10	6	2	B	9	1667.793	89.40	
7	7	7	N	0	7	7	ო	က	ო	ო	ო	ო	n	ო	ო	8	7	N	7	7	7	8	~	8	N	7	7	8	8	8	8	N	8	8	
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A-11

73.79.3 70.1 74.5 76.9 76.9 73.4 73.4 70.9 76.3 85.2 85.2 86.1 86.1 86.1 86.1 85.3 86.1 86.1 86.1 86.1 86.1 86.1 86.1
74.5 72.9 76.2 73.4 77.7 77.7 81.7 82.1 84.1 84.1 84.1 83.8 86.1 85.2 89.2 79.1 81.1 83.9 86.1 85.3 86.1 85.3 86.1
72.9 76.2 82.5 73.4 77.7 81.7 81.7 85.2 82.1 89.2 79.1 83.8 80.7 86.1 83.9 83.9 83.9
82.5 73.4 77.7 81.7 81.7 82.1 82.1 83.8 86.1 86.1 86.1 86.1 86.1 86.1 86.1 86
85.2 82.1 82.1 82.1 84.1 84.1 84.1 85.2 91.4 86.1 85.1 85.3
90.9 78.3 85.2 82.1 83.2 79.1 84.1 84.1 85.2 86.1 85.3 85.3 85.3
90.9 78.3 85.2 82.1 89.2 79.1 84.1 83.8 86.1 85.3 89.0 81.1
85.2 82.1 89.2 79.1 84.1 83.8 86.1 86.1 83.9 85.3 85.3
82.1 89.2 79.1 84.1 83.8 80.7 86.1 83.9 90.0 81.1 85.3 89.3
89.2 79.1 84.1 83.8 90.7 86.1 83.9 81.1 85.3
84.1 83.8 80.7 86.1 83.9 90.0 81.1 85.3 89.3
83.8 90.7 86.1 83.9 90.0 81.1 85.3 89.4
91.4 86.1 83.9 90.0 81.1 85.3 89.4
86.1 83.9 90.0 81.1 85.3 89.4
83.9 90.0 81.1 85.3 89.4 86.0
90.0 81.1 85.3 89.4 86.0
85.3 P9.4 99.3 86.0
89.4 86.0
99.3 86.0

SL

RKM	80.000	87.7	90.5	89.2
10 PER	PER-CENT PER-CENT	95.1	100.3 87.1	96.8 86.1
COHERENT	ENT SL	89.8	95.0	91.5
R M	90.000	92.8	92.1	91.0
10 PER	PER-CENT PER-CENT	103.1	102.1 88.6	99.2 87.9
COHER	COHERENT SL	100.7	97.5	93.7
RKM	100.000	93.7	92.2	94.0
10 PER	PER-CENT PER-CENT	104.1	101.6 88.8	104.2
COHER	COHERENT SL	101:8	95.9	100.8
RANDOM	100.000	93.2	92.5	91.3
R XX	100.000	93.7	92.2 95.5	94.0
10 PER	PER-CENT PER-CENT	106.1	105.8 92.0	101.1
COHER	COHERENT SL	107.3	104.2	92.6
RKM	120.000	1.16	9.76	97.5
10 PER	PER-CENT PER-CENT	107.4	108.0	107.7
COHER	COHERENT SL	109.9	124.8	108.2
RXM	130.000	97.2	95.7	98.2
10 PER	PER-CENT PER-CENT	107.2 93.8	104.5	108.6
COHER	COHERENT SL	102.3	98.9	105.6
RKM	140.000	0.66	99.1	96.4
10 PER 90 PER	PER-CENT PER-CENT	105.3 95.5	109.4	104.5 93.3
COHERENT	ENT SL	106.1	108.5	99.1
RKM	150.000	100.9	100.1	97.1
10 PER 90 PER	PER-CENT PER-CENT	111.2	110.4	104.5

105.	105.8	000 106.2 IN CONTROL MODE	DATA IGNORED - IN C	RKM DATA IGN
103.	104.1	106.0	200.000	RANDOM
113.	114.3	113.5	COHERENT SL	СОНЕ
102.	102.3	102.6	PER-CENT	
116.	116.2	116.5	PER-CENT	10 PF
105.	105.8	106.2	200.000	RKM
104.	113.0	117.2	COHERENT SL	СОНЕ
110.	115.0	115.8	PER-CENT PER-CENT	10 PE
102.	104.7	105.6	190.000	RKM
107.	112.6	119.2	COHERENT SL	СОНЕ
112. 99.	114.1	115.3	PER-CENT PER-CENT	10 PE
102.	103.7	105.0	180.000	RKM
102.	104.4	112.6	COHERENT SL	СОНЕ
107. 96.	110.0	113.6 99.8	PER-CENT PER-CENT	10 PE
.66	100.7	103.3	170.000	RKM
106.	102.3	109.9	COHERENT SL	СОНЕ
110.	107.9 96.0	112.1 98.2	PER-CENT PER-CENT	10 PE 90 PE
100.	99.3	101.8	160.000	RKM
.66	107.5	109.5	COHERENT SL	СОНЕ

PFIN

Figure A-2. (Continued)

	SAMPLE TWO	9								~
200 100	20	300	200	200 1435 1510	1510		4 1 11	-	•	
1.4	2.5 3.	1.4 2.5 3. 3.2 3.4 3.6 4.	3.6 4.				•	•	2	
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	1435.	300.	1454.6 500.	500.		1459.6 1200.	1200.		1468.2 2000	1482 7
3500.	1507.					1				
10.	20.	200.	400.							

Figure A-3. Second sample run.

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PROGRAM
PROPAGAT 10N
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REM2.
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						INAUTM		000		٥.			٥.		
			OWO DS			/ ILASV		000		ó			•		
	0 × d		N MDD2		MSURCH 3	IO SOR LEV		.00.		°.°			0.0		
	I VLA		NMDD1 0		PVSUR .00	XXX ICE RATIO		3.60		00	TABLES) **		••		F 0 + & w m m - 4 & +
	1 2 05		NMO DS 0		PVMAX \$510.00	LOS I		3.40		°.°.	SCATTERING TABI		•••		SCATF .000000 .092571 .176573 .321799 .321799 .441691 .493374 .540273
	1 30 BP 0		RLAT		PVMIN 1435.00	TOB I (10)		3.20		00	I CE		00		101AL LOSS .000 .422 .1266 1.266 1.687 2.109 2.531 3.375
	XXXX 0.		DRATIO 1.50		FREQ 200.0	.WVHT WING(KNT)		e		9.9	(FROM IMPLICIT	;	°.°.	*	8 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
	хххз 0.	ETC. ***	VRATIO	:	RLK 300.000	I ICE S.	TYPE 2A ***	2.50	ROUGHNESS **		2.50 M,	ICE ABSORPTION		O FOR WINTER	ICE
	xxx2 0.	PARAMETERS, E	0S0R	LIMITS ARE KM		I RG	CARO	1.40	5	•••	E OEPTH IS	2	•••	TABLES USED	RG2 LGSS .000 .422 .844 1.266 1.687 2.531 2.531 2.953 3.375
	x xxx1 x 0.0	SOURCE	A SOR 0	RANGE	Z0.000	IATTEN	READ IN BOTTOM LOSS TABLE,	000	28, SURFACE LOSS DUE		STANDARD DEVIATION OF ICE	INPUT 2C, SURFACE LOSS OUE	•••	ABSORPTION TABLES	w o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o o
SAMPLE TWO		CARD TYPE 1.	R SG 0 100.00	INPUT CARD TYPE 2,	RFK 100.000	I XXX I	AO IN BOTTO	(08)		°.°	NDARD DEVI.	UT 2C, SUR	°.	IMPLICIT ICE	LOSS TABLE S S TABLE 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11
SA	IPLOT	*** CAI	NSDN 0	INPUT C.	2 C O O	I SIP		BOT LOS(08	++ INPUT	ж o	** STAI	INI ++		•• IMP	SURFACE GZS O D D D D D D D D D D D D D D D D D D D

Figure A-3. (Continued)

	0	000.	4.219	000.		4.219	.621448				
	=	000.	4.641	000.		4.641	.656492				
	12	000.	5.062	000.		5.062	.688291				
	13	000.	5.484	000.		484	.717146				
	1.4	000	5.906	000		5.906	743330				
	ď		8025	000		328	767090				
	2 :		2000			077	000000				
	9	000.	6.750	000		.750	. 788551				
	17	000.	7.172	2.000		.172	.808216				
	18	000.	7.594	2.000		9.594	.825970				
	61	000	8.016	2.000		0.016	.842080				
	20	000	8.438	2.000	0	.437	.856699				
Š	- Natta	TA 83/80	200 H7								
	-		-								
:	INPUT CARD TYPE	D TYPE 3, SDUND SPEED	SPEED PROFILE	TE ***							
(Z. V	`	.0 1435.00	300.0	0 1454.60	500.0	.0 1459,60		1200.0 1468.20		1 0.000	1482.70
	•										
:	INPUT CARD TYPE	ر	SOUND SPEED PROFILE	31:							
(z. \	V) 35(3500.0 1507.00		00.		00.	0	•	.00	٥.	00.
:	801 L0SS	BOT LDSS TABLE (IN DB), ANGLES	FROM	0 TD 29 DEG	*						
	00.4	1.40	2.50	3.00	3.20	3.40	3.60	00.4	00.4	4.4	
	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	
:	PARAMETER CHECK	CHECK ***									
	NW IN	INMINV VMIN 1 1435.00	IN INMAXV	VMAX 1507.00	PVMIN 1435.00	PVMAX 1510.00	V8DT 1507.00	VBSED 1657.70	.D VMAX2	4×2	
:	INPUT CA		RECEIVER DEPTHS	:							
	10.00	10.00	200.00	400.00	00.	00.	•	.00	00.	00.	00.
:	N. 8 RCV	N.B., RCV. MUST BE ADDED WITH	WITH RCD(LNR)	s FOR	CALCULATION OF	OF SCATTERED FIELD	D FIELD ***	•			

SPEED VS. DEPTH ACD. So M0000000 SDUND SPEED PRDFILE *** SPEED 1435.00 1435.64 1441.45 1447.98 1457.09 1457.09 :

Figure A-3. (Continued)

3194.	4215.	4890.	4 1 1	7870		6562		7136.	9/48	11139.	12130.	12904.	358	540	849		- C	- 6	100	ייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייייי	מ מ	654	718	779	836	8914	9438	994	042	129	7 0	32209	149	1112	9960	160	200	2/60	1042	113	246	146	159	172	186	000	1 5
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00.	00.	00.	0.0	0.0	9	0.0		00.	00.	00.	0	00.	00.	0	0	0 (20) (9.6		9 6	000	0	00.	00.	00.	00.	8.	0 (0 0) C	200	O	00.	00.	0.	00.	8.	00.	0.0	3.6) C	200	•	200	0	>
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Ξ,	4	<u>ښ</u> و	ויכ	ບ. ເ		ທຸ	ית	Ġ	9	ю. С	0	.2	0.3	0.5	9.0	9.0	j, c		٠,		ic	3 4	. r	ı.	9.	۲.	٠.	œ,	6.	<u>ق</u> د	? •	12.18	Ġ	е.	е.	4.	4	ů.	9	ė,		•	0 0	ņo	y c	, 0	•
.541	4	54	4 ,	20 F	U .	4 4	1 4	5.4	4 .	3	4	33	2	28	24	22	- 0	2 0	ח כ	n o	oα	182	179	.176	.173	.171	.169	9	9	9 4	9 4	160	16	16	.168	.170	.170	.171	.171	.172	7/1.	2,1.		2,1.		. 1.2	7.1.
38.67	41.44	3.72	45.74	47.59	49.33	50.97	52.54	54.03	55.36	56.36	57.28	58.11	58.92	59.67	60.31	60.85	61.37	CB.10	62.32	77.70	07.50	60.02	43	64.82	65.20	65.57	65.94	66.30	99.99	67.01	02.70	1467.703	68.37	68.71	69.06	69.41	69.76	70.11	70.46	0.81	71.15	71.50	73 40	72.19	72.53	72.87	73.5
4	9	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	Ŋ	ო	4	4	က	4	ო	4 1	m (α :		י מ	י ני	י ני	n	(4	(7)	ო	ო	ო	ო (ო (יז מי	m	m	ო	74	ო	ო	ო	ო	m	ο ο	7 7 (m (7	N 6	
-	-	-	-	0	N	0	8	8	8	ო	ო	ო	ო	ო	ო	ო	m (m (m (י פי	m (י ני	י ר) M	n	m	4	4	4	4	4 ,	4 4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4 ,	4 4	4 ,	4 .	4 4	9
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 0	o c	0 0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 (0 (0 0	c	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 0	0	0 0	o e	c
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MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	300		MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	MODE	100						

1200.0 2000.0 3500.0

. MODE 60	0	4	8	1476.540		.172	13.62	12.52	00.	5.75	3346
			7	1478.153		.171	13.88	12.80	00.	5.86	3419
	i.		က	1479.735		.171	14.12	13.06	00.	5.96	3491
. MODE 7			9	1481.290		.170	14.36	13.32	00.	90.9	3560
			7	1482.815		.168	14.59	13.57	00.	6.16	3660
			7	1484.285		.164	14.81	13.80	00.	6.25	3813
			7	1485.711		.162	15.01	14.02	00.	6.35	3919
			7	1487.104		.165	15.21	14.23	00.	6.63	4012
. MODE 100			8	1488.468		.168	15.40	14.44	00.	6.90	4097
-			8	1489.808		.172	15.59	14.64	00.	7.17	4176
•			~	1491.126		.175	15.77	14.83	00.	7.42	4251
•			8	1492.424		.178	15.95	15.02	00.	7.67	4321
•			8	1493.704		.180	16.12	15.20	00.	7.92	4389
* MODE 125	0	S	7	1494.966		.183	16.28	15.38	00.	8.15	4454
-			7	1496.213		.186	16.45	15.55	00.	8.38	4516
_			8	1497.444		.188	16.60	15.72	00.	8.61	4577
-		٠	8	1498.662		.191	16.76	15.88	00.	8.83	4635
-			8	1499.867		.193	16.91	16.04	00.	9.05	4691
• MODE 15(8	1501.060		.194	17.06	16.20	8.	9.20	4746
_			7	1502.241		.193	17.21	16.36	00.	9.26	4799
_			8	1503.412		.192	17.35	16.51	00.	9.32	4850
-			က	1504.572		.191	17.49	16.66	00.	9.38	4900
-			e	1505.722		.191	17.63	16.80	00.	9.44	4949
17	2		m	1506.889		.190	17.77	16.95	00.	9.50	4998
-	0		n	1508.144		.280	17.92	17.10	2.23	12.17	4343
* MODE 18	5		ო	1509.498		.312	18.08	17.27	3.30	12.69	4061
*** SEARCH	15	TERMIN	NATED	2 ***	186	.151	1510+04	.1510+04	. 1510+04		

Figure A-3. (Continued)

	SL																						
	SL																						
	SL																						
	SL																						
	SL																						
100.0	SL	103.8	114.1	113.0	102.7	103.8	117.7	113.5	4.111	121.2	116.0	115.9	126.0	121.3	121.3	131.6	134.8	125.0	135.3	134.6	126.2	134.6	129.1
400.0	SL	100.6	110.2	104.6	101.7	100.6	115.8	111.0	111.5	121.8	124.4	114.2	124.3	119.8	117.6	127.2	121.7	123.6	134.0	138.0	127.1	137.4	135.9
200.0	SL	103.7	114.0	115.6	102.8	103.7	118.6	120.8	110.5	119.8	114.2	115.8	125.9	121.7	120.7	131.0	130.4	125.1	135.5	144.3	125.8	134.0	128.5
50.0	SL	103.7	114.0	112.1	103.4	103.7	118.8	124.4	111.6	121.8	117.6	116.7	127.0	127.8	120.6	131.0	130.0	125.0	135.4	139.1	128.6	138.9	138.1
10.0	SL	102.5	112.7	109.1	102.2	102.5	117.5	115.5	110.9	121.1	117.2	115.1	125.4	121.5	117.6	126.5	120.9	122.7	132.6	127.6	124.9	132.9	127.5
SOUND LEVEL, RCV AT	RANGE	RKM 100.000	10 PER-CENT 90 PER-CENT	COHERENT SL	RANDOM 100.000	RKM 100.000 RKM 120.000	10 PER-CENT 90 PER-CENT	COHERENT SL	RKM 140.000	10 PER-CENT 90 PER-CENT	COHERENT SL	RKM 160.000	10 PER-CENT 90 PER-CENT	COHERENT SL	RKM 180.000	10 PER-CENT 90 PER-CENT	COHERENT SL	RKM 200.000	10 PER-CENT 90 PER-CENT	COHERENT SL	RKM 220.000	10 PER-CENT 90 PER-CENT	COMERENT SL

SL

144	141.3	143.7	143.3	142.2 CONTROL MODE	DATA IGNORED - IN (RKM DATA 1GN
142.9	141.9	143.1	143.5	142.3	300.000	RANDOM
156.	145.9	151.6	149.5	147.4	RENT SL	COHERENT
140.	137.8	140.2	139.8	138.7	PER-CENT	
154.	151.1	154.1	153.5	152.2	R-CENT	10 PE
144.	141.3	143.7	143.3	142.2	300.000	RXM
147.	149.4	149.0	146.6	142.4	RENT SL	COHERENT
136.	135.4	136.6	136.2	134.5	PER-CENT PER-CENT	10 PE
140.	138.9	140.1	139.7	138.0	280.000	RXM
148.	151.3	143.7	146.2	148.3	COHERENT SL	COHE
147.	145.8	146.4	146.7	146.1	PER-CENT PER-CENT	10 PEF 90 PEF
136.	135.4	136.1	136.4	135.8	260.000	RX
139.	149.3	139.7	137.0	135.8	COHERENT 5L	COHE
142.	142.0	142.5	141.6	140.5	PER-CENT PER-CENT	10 PE
132.	131.6	132.2	131.6	130.6	240.000	R W

PFIN

Figure A-3. (Continued)